UNITED
NATIONS

E

Economic and Social Council

Distr.
GENERAL

E/CN.6/1995/11
3 January 1995

ORIGINAL: ENGLISH

COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN
Thirty-ninth session
New York, 15 March-4 April 1995
Item 2 of the provisional agenda*

PRIORITY THEMES: DEVELOPMENT

Promotion of literacy, education and training, including technological skills

Report of the Secretary-General

SUMMARY

The Commission on the Status of Women, at its thirty-fourth session, selected the "promotion of literacy, education and training, including technological skills" as the priority theme in the area of development for consideration at its thirty-ninth session. The present report, based on the results of an expert group meeting organized to examine the theme, presents the progress achieved at all levels of female education and describes the obstacles in access and achievements that still persist at regional and subregional levels.

The right to education is universally recognized. Female education is considered a powerful instrument of public action and a catalyst for economic and social change. Investing in educational opportunities for girls yields perhaps the best returns of all investments in developing countries. Recently, the focus has been shifting from mere access to education to the quality, type and appropriateness of education and training for women throughout their lives. The elimination of gender bias from curricula, textbooks and teacher attitudes and the introduction of supportive measures are ways to improve female education. Improved access to training in science and technology is also considered important, in order to prepare women for the twenty-first century. The expert group meeting recommended changes in educational policies, improved access to education, changes in the learning environment, and more activities for girls and women in especially difficult circumstances.

* E/CN.6/1995/1.

95-00135 (E) 010295 060295

/..

CONTENTS

	Paragraphs	Page
INTRODUCTION	1 - 2	3
ISSUES IN GENDER, EDUCATION AND TRAINING	3 - 22	3
A. The rationale for female education	3 - 6	3
B. Obstacles to girls' education	7 - 11	4
C. Elimination of female illiteracy	12	5
D. Progress achieved at all levels of formal schooling	13 - 16	5
E. Complementary role of non-formal education	17 - 18	6
F. Women in science and technology	19	7
G. Women in teaching	20	7
H. Quality of education	21 - 22	7
Annex. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE EXPERT GROUP MEETING ON GENDER, EDUCATION AND TRAINING		9

INTRODUCTION

1. On the recommendation of the Commission on the Status of Women, the Economic and Social Council, in its resolution 1990/15, decided that the Commission should consider, as a priority theme at its thirty-ninth session, in the area of development, the "promotion of literacy, education and training, including technological skills" and prepare a report for the section on strategic action in the platform for action, the final document to be adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women. The theme was suggested by the recommendations and conclusions arising from the first review and appraisal of the implementation of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women. In the Forward-looking Strategies, education is considered "the basis for the full promotion and improvement of the status of women" (paras. 163-173). 1/ Recommendations related to education for women are set out as an area of development, but references to the need for formal and non-formal education and training are made in many other sections of the Strategies. The Strategies do not make a specific demand for parity of women's enrolment at all levels but call for "equal opportunities" in access to resources, especially education and training.

2. In order to help consider the theme, an expert group meeting on gender, education and training was convened by the Division for the Advancement of Women, Department for Policy Coordination and Sustainable Development, United Nations Secretariat. It was held from 10 to 14 October 1994 at the International Training Centre of the ILO in Turin (Italy). The main conclusions and recommendations of the seminar are annexed to the present report. The analysis in the first part of the report draws on the background and working papers prepared for the expert group meeting.

ISSUES IN GENDER, EDUCATION AND TRAINING

A. The rationale for female education

3. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights asserts that "everyone has a right to education". 2/ The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women calls for the elimination of discrimination against women in order to ensure equal rights with men in the field of education (art. 10). 3/ In order to achieve this goal, the utilization of specific "appropriate measures", as reaffirmed by article 4.1 of the Convention and contained in general recommendation No. 5 on temporary special measures, may be appropriate. The Committee encourages States Parties to make more use of special measures such as positive action, preferential treatment and quota systems to advance women's integration into education.

4. The World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand, 1990) drew attention to the gender gap in educational opportunities and its consequences for human development. The Convention on the Rights of the Child also contains provisions on the right to education, including the right to compulsory and free primary education and access by all to secondary, vocational and higher

education. 4/ It also requests equal rights for girls and boys to education and asserts the importance of education as a social and cultural right.

5. Education is an agent of development through its impact on health, mortality, productivity, household income and fertility rates. If women are key agents for development, any improvement in their education brings with it higher social and economic returns. Potential economic gains result from the expansion of women's income-earning capacities in the formal labour market and their increased participation in the informal sector of the economy.

6. The social returns of a woman's education go far beyond individual welfare and are vital to national development. Numerous studies have shown that higher education for women is associated with healthier children and lower infant mortality. Educated mothers are better equipped to maintain good hygiene and sanitation practices. They have fewer children at a later age in their life, which in turn increases the family resources devoted to each child. The education of the mother has a larger impact on children's schooling than father's education, influencing significantly student's motivation, achievements and study habits. Educated women and girls have greater environmental awareness and understanding of social, economic and political systems.

B. Obstacles to girls' education

7. There are economic, cultural, social, political and educational constraints on girls' education. Access to schooling is affected by urban or rural residence and by social class. Poor and rural women are more likely to be illiterate, to have no access to training programmes and higher education. Since the public educational system is fragmented, the poor attend low-quality schools, and vulnerable groups are most affected.

8. The direct and opportunity costs of sending girls to schools influence parents' decisions on the education of their daughters. The annual cost per pupil for primary education can be as high as a rural family's annual cash income; for secondary education, it is even greater. If a family decides to educate a child, culture and economics frequently favour the male. In many developing countries, even when schooling is publicly provided, much of the cost of education is borne privately, including expenditures for school fees, textbooks, transport, uniforms, and, in addition, the opportunity cost of the child's time spent in school. If girls do more home and market work and perform a larger share of family labour than boys, parents may be reluctant to send daughters to school. Experience suggests that compulsory education laws and tuition-free primary education are not sufficient to achieve equal enrolment rates between men and women. Specific gender-based interventions may be required, such as reducing the opportunity costs of educating girls by allowing girls to bring younger siblings to school, establishing day-care centres for mothers at work, or introducing simple technologies that can substitute for time in fetching water or firewood, thus releasing girls from household work.

9. The geographical location of schools and the distance from home to schools are deterrents to girls' enrolment, especially when security and sexual safety are concerns. Where the privacy and seclusion of girls is required to protect

their reputations, restrictions are put on female mobility at the onset of puberty. Socio-cultural factors such as a patriarchal system of school organizations, absence of female teachers, early marriages and pregnancies and traditional practices such as circumcision prevent girls from attending school.

10. Poor health and bad nutrition impede girls' performance in schools. In some developing countries, there tend to be a higher achievement by boys at all levels, in particular in science and math. The gender difference in academic achievement is due to the reduced learning opportunities of girls, lack of role models, deficiencies in teacher training and absence of support systems for girls to learn. Absenteeism and drop-out rates are higher.

11. Girls and women with disabilities often lack access to education and training because educational facilities cannot cater for their special needs. The costs involved in providing equal opportunities for girls and women with disabilities prevent many political decision makers from providing the adequate and needed services. The children of minority populations and communities and indigenous populations have special educational needs because their distinctive culture and language should be respected and preserved. In many countries, there has been markedly less educational improvement among particular groups of girls, such as migrants, aborigines, girls with disabilities or girls living in poverty.

C. Elimination of female illiteracy

12. World wide there are 905 million illiterate men and women, of whom 65 per cent are women. 5/ About the same number of men and women can be considered functionally illiterate. Illiteracy rates, usually obtained through census interviews, tend to underestimate the true prevalence of illiteracy. Important progress has been made in eliminating both adult illiteracy and the differentials between female and male illiteracy. High illiteracy rates in some countries in Africa, Asia and the Pacific are a reflection of past discrimination and lack of education. In the present age group 15-24 years old, illiteracy rates are significantly lower due to higher levels of school enrolment. Countries with large indigenous populations have higher disparities in female/male literacy ratios. In the developed countries, the percentage of illiterates is higher among immigrant populations and people living in poverty. Mass literacy campaigns constitute one effective strategy for the elimination of widespread illiteracy among adult women within a set time-frame. Literacy strategies are only successful when they take into account the social condition of women and make a link to income-generating activities.

D. Progress achieved at all levels of formal schooling

13. In the past decade, substantive and successful efforts were made to attract girls to primary schools. On a regional level, girls' enrolment has achieved parity with boys' except in Africa and Asia. The lowest rates persist in sub-Saharan Africa and Central and Southern Asia where in some countries almost half of the children of primary school age are out of school, the majority being girls. In many countries with rates of high population growth, the planning of

new educational facilities did not meet the actual need. Economic crises and measures of structural adjustment in the 1980s had an impact on the educational system in the form of cuts in salary, reduced numbers of teachers and lower expenditures on resource materials.

14. Studies have indicated that as per capita GNP increases, female enrolment rates rise and women generally move towards parity with men. This does not occur automatically since certain countries with relatively high per capita GNP show disappointing achievements in terms of progress in female enrolment, whereas certain countries with low per capita GNP show remarkable success because of deliberate educational policies taken to promote female education. Female education has the best chance to progress when macroeconomic policies to promote general social and economic growth are accompanied by educational policies specifically tailored to the particular characteristics and requirements of the female population.

15. The number of men and women in higher education is approaching parity in the developed countries. In Latin America and the Caribbean and in Eastern Europe there is a higher proportion of women compared to men in tertiary education. A generational transition is taking place, with a trend towards a female population that is proportionally better educated than the male population. In countries where the provision of tertiary education is far from adequate, the establishment of distance-learning programmes would benefit female students when mobility and family situation do not allow them to attend courses as full-time students.

16. Female students at the secondary and tertiary levels remain clustered in traditional fields of study. However, more women are enroling in fields once dominated by men. When equality in access and attainment is achieved, equality in professional qualifications or remuneration still lags behind. There is a growing distortion between the qualifications and expectations of young educated women and their possibility of participation in the labour market. Curricula and course content are not adapted to the requirements of the economic and socio-cultural realities.

E. Complementary role of non-formal education

17. Non-formal approaches to basic education for school children and youth have grown in many countries where access to formal education is unequal. These have been advocated by many educationalists as a temporary means to improve access and performance. Non-governmental organizations are essential partners for providing non-traditional programmes for out-of-school children in a non-institutional environment based on a learner-centred curriculum and flexible schedule.

18. Continuing education and training for women throughout the life cycle is carried out by a variety of organizations, including non-governmental organizations, political parties, educational institutions and foundations. Educational activities for adult women are a major component to awareness-raising and increasing self-confidence among women. Training in legal literacy,

for example, has gained importance since it is a necessary tool for making women aware of their human rights.

F. Women in science and technology

19. The rapid development of science and technology and its impact on global markets and economies has created new challenges to education systems and policy makers. Many training programmes for women in developing countries have been restricted to traditionally domestic activities and are concentrated in the capital cities and a few provinces. Women's participation in higher-level education in science and technology and research programmes remains low. Few female researchers are actively involved in defining research programmes and setting the research agenda for the next century.

G. Women in teaching

20. The male-to-female ratio in teaching varies according to the level of teaching. The percentage of female teachers is high at the primary level, decreases at the secondary level and further declines in universities and equivalent institutions. Although the number of female academics in higher education is increasing globally, tenure is still heavily concentrated among senior male academics. Women are generally underrepresented in the higher status and higher-paying categories but tend to be employed in support positions which lack promotional opportunities. The absence of female teachers in remote rural areas has an impact on the schooling of girls. In addition, the training of teachers is often not adequate, and salaries are not competitive.

H. Quality of education

21. The quality of education is a question that goes beyond the issue of access and performance and basic educational needs to improved completion rates, critical awareness and empowerment. Much research has been done on gender stereotypes and bias in education and training in the past decade. The establishment of womens' studies programmes in the undergraduate and graduate levels is the most visible acknowledgement of the need to examine gender issues in society and gender bias in education, training and research. There is an increasing consensus to utilize the knowledge about gender bias in education to define and implement strategies of action for transforming sexual discrimination within educational institutions. Female education can be improved through curriculum changes, improvement in teacher training, incentives and other supportive measures (scholarships, reduced fees, boarding facilities, school meals, counselling, child care services).

22. In a first step many Governments have removed gender bias from textbooks and curricula, but often no further action has been taken. Experience has shown that equality must be mainstreamed in the teaching process in order to give boys and girls equal opportunities in education. Gender awareness in education can be promoted through gender-sensitive training courses for teachers and development of teaching materials, experimental projects and training centres

that focus on various actors, including girls and their parents, teachers and administrators.

Notes

1/ Report of the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, Nairobi, 15-26 July 1985 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.85.IV.10.

2/ General Assembly resolution 217 A (III).

3/ General Assembly resolution 34/180.

4/ General Assembly resolution 1386 (XIV).

5/ UNESCO, World Education Report (Paris, 1993).

Annex

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE EXPERT GROUP MEETING ON GENDER, EDUCATION AND TRAINING

CONTENTS

		Paragraphs	Page
I.	PREAMBLE	1 - 13	10
II.	RECOMMENDATIONS	14 - 51	12
	A. Educational policies	14 - 26	12
	B. Access	27 - 39	17
	C. Learning environment	40 - 48	21
	D. Girls and women in especially difficult circumstances	49 - 51	26

I. PREAMBLE

1. As we approach the twenty-first century, this Fourth World Conference on Women allows us an opportunity to evaluate and consolidate the many achievements of women the world over and to specify the interventions necessary to meet their continuing needs. In the area of education, significant gains have been made in improving access and quality in the education and training of girls and women. However, much still needs to be done to address, for example, the needs of some 905 million illiterate men and women, of whom 65 per cent are women.

2. The world today is different from the world we knew in 1975 and 1985. The challenges are greater than before. Today, the world faces globalization of production and trade, more intense fundamental beliefs in all religions, reduced national budgets, and intense ethnic rivalries. On the other hand, more extended definitions of democracy have been envisaged and applied, pluralistic political systems are emerging, and individuals and groups in mass movements are asserting themselves as legitimate social actors.

3. Various trends in the world pose special challenges to women. The emergence of an increasingly knowledge-intensive society and the growth in information and communication technologies require that women acquire appropriate education and training to function in contemporary society. Further, education and training should enable women to perform well in a changing economic, social, and cultural environment. Changes in the economic environment include the shifting nature of the formal sector in light of global economic restructuring, resulting in demands on women to adjust to new opportunities and situations, and the increased importance of small and medium-sized enterprises which creates both opportunities and limitations for women. The same applies to the growth in flexibility in the economy, which can provide opportunities for women and men better to balance family, social and economic responsibilities. Environmental degradation has affected girls and women in adverse ways. Many women in rural and remote areas who were dependent on nature for their daily subsistence are finding it increasingly difficult to survive with the resources at their disposal, and the demands on their time and energy further constrain their participation in education.

4. The conceptual, theoretical and practical understanding of gender as a force that shapes the social order in decisive ways has matured and grown increasingly complex. The call for a gender-sensitive approach emphasized in the present report enables women and men to recognize and revalue women's experiences, skills, and contributions throughout history to culture, the economy, and social life; to share domestic and caring responsibilities; to participate in society as conscious, active, and responsible citizens; to enjoy gender relations based on equality and solidarity and to value tolerance, diversity and peaceful resolution of conflict. This approach requires individuals and groups to realize the social and economic asymmetries created by gender discrimination and to conceive the structures and mechanisms required to transform stereotypes about masculinity and femininity and the privileges attached to them. A gender-sensitive approach is also viewed as being profoundly transformative in nature, given its potential to create and maintain a social order truly in accord with a fully democratic and just society.

5. The Forward-looking Strategies provide strong recommendations for the advancement of girls and women, many of whom have benefited from the implementation of several of its recommendations. While some of the changes needed can be done through policy and attitudinal change, the implementation of recommendations in several countries have been constrained due to inadequate translation of the recommendations into specific action and lack of adequate resources. We see the Fourth World Conference on Women and the NGO Forum, to be held in Beijing, as crucial meetings that will set up specific recommendations for action by national Governments, civil society and international bodies. A crucial element in the platform for action will be the monitoring mechanisms at national, regional and international levels to be put in place to ensure implementation and evaluation of the actions to be taken.

6. The present report proposes actions for education and training of girls and women to be considered at this international forum. It emphasizes access to quality education for girls and women as a basic and fundamental human right. Women's education yields numerous benefits, including increased economic productivity, lower birth rates, decreased maternal and infant mortality, improved family health care and nutrition, and delayed marriage. Education also has impacts on other social sectors. Investing in education therefore means simultaneous investments in health, the environment, the labour force and increasing women's political participation.

7. The recommendations in this report call for special and sustained governmental interventions. International agencies, non-governmental organizations, parents, the private sector, community groups, and labour unions are also challenged to contribute to and share responsibilities for the education and training of girls and women. The recommendations are in four main areas: educational policies, access, the learning environment and education for girls and women in specially difficult circumstances.

8. The recommendations dealing with educational policies identify the need for legislation, administrative actions, educational inputs, the media, participation and partnerships, and resources. The recommended policies provide the framework and legitimacy for the actions required to improve education for girls and boys, and women and men. Recommendations to improve access by girls and women emphasize the need for interventions to improve physical provisions in the educational system and address concerns in the social context that affects girls' and women's education: improve the quality and relevance of education and training, link them to the labour market and ensure adequate monitoring and evaluation.

9. Recommendations for improving the learning environment focus on the physical environment, the teacher, curriculum, learning materials, alternate delivery systems, and adult and lifelong education. The quality of education which girls and women receive is a source of concern, given the gender-stereotyping and biases that exist in aspects of the school curriculum, textbooks, teaching and learning aids, and the delivery system.

10. With respect to the quality of education the recommendations also stress the importance of the education of girls and women in the areas of science and technology and technical and vocational education for less-biased representation

in those fields. Women in science and technology will contribute to a redefinition of these areas and to the application of knowledge to the design of technologies relevant to their needs. Their participation in technical and vocational education and training is also a means to increase their access to technical knowledge and to diverse opportunities in the productive sector.

11. Recommendations for the education of women in especially difficult circumstances are premised on the fact that education is affected by gender differentials in social class position, urban/rural residence, ethnic affiliation, racial distinctions and displacement. Conditions affecting women are not uniform and women can be further marginalized by the combination of arbitrary social distinctions. It is, therefore, important to recognize the existence of extremely vulnerable groups of women and children - for example, those in refugee camps and in exploitative circumstances such as entrapment in the sex trade - and to provide special educational and training interventions to address their needs and enable them to contribute to the solution of their problems.

12. While many of the recommendations for qualitative improvement of education and training do not require significant additional resources, it is important to note that the real resources available for education and training have diminished, in a context of structural adjustment in many countries, and that new sources of funding are required. The recommendations being made depend on several sources of support, and an appeal is being made to the industrialized countries to contribute at least 0.7 per cent of their GNP to development in less advanced countries. The international community is also being requested to ensure that a significant proportion of the peace dividend go towards education as an integral component of human development.

13. Finally, it is important to stress the responsibility of national Governments to provide education and training as a basic human right. Girls and women should be encouraged to make use of available educational provisions and be empowered to assume responsibility for their welfare in general and for their education and training in particular.

II. RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Educational policies

14. Access to, and participation in education is a basic human right for all. Education for all and forward-looking policies in education are imperative for the development of the individual, the community and for the growth of nations.

15. The process of providing quality and equitable education for all begins with the formulation and implementation of comprehensive gender-sensitive policies that affect the different aspects and levels of education and training. Gender-sensitive educational policies have to remove all stereotypes and prescriptions that prevent women and men from fully realizing their capacities, skills, and aspirations and enable them to be full partners in private and public spheres. Those policies could be reached through policy dialogue and

consultation that involve all the stakeholders in education and training, within both the public and private sectors.

16. Those policies will have an impact on all major aspects of the education sector such as legislation, administration, educational inputs, processes, results and resources. It is important to recognize that the implementation of these recommended forward-looking policies does not always assume the prerequisite of additional funds. Many of these policies would require the reallocation of resources, and only a few would require generating new resources for their implementation.

1. Legislation

17. Legislation should be adopted to:

(a) Ensure equal opportunities for girls and women at all levels of education and training by endorsing the principles of affirmative action in national education legislation, in order to remedy unequal status, whenever needed;

(b) Ensure the enforcement of compulsory, primary education and universal basic education by providing as many of the following measures as possible:

(i) Eliminate all direct costs of basic education for girls of low-income families;

(ii) Provide scholarships for girls of low-income families during the first phase of the secondary level;

(iii) Provide separate boarding facilities for girls at secondary level;

(c) Recommend that Governments issue a language policy that recognizes the value of maternal languages in the early grades of primary;

(d) Eliminate all discriminative legislation that may prevent girls and women from attending and/or continuing to attend schools, such as the punitive policies regarding pregnancy and maternal leave; and enact legislation that encourages equitable participation of girls and women at all levels of schooling and training;

(e) Ensure gender balance in the teaching profession and educational administration at all levels (primary, secondary, vocational, technical, and tertiary) and, where necessary, establish a quota system;

(f) Ensure that education and training offered through the private sector be responsive to gender-equity principles and therefore contribute to the narrowing of the gender gap in both education and employment;

(g) Strengthen the linkage between the education and training sector and the labour market by ensuring equal opportunities of employment for both women and men, through affirmative actions, where necessary;

(h) Raise the minimum legal age of marriage to 18 years in order to reduce the drop-out rate that results from early marriage; and establish 16 years as the legal age of consent, thus preventing schools and society from holding female students solely responsible in case of pregnancy;

(i) Prohibit child labour, especially for children under 14 years of age, in order to encourage children to remain in basic education; and whenever children are in bonded labour situations, enact labour laws that require employers to facilitate basic and continuing education and training for all those children and specifically for girls;

(j) Formulate legislation against violence and sexual harassment in the educational system;

(k) Formulate legislation that will reinforce the creation and the existence of support services such as child care centres, career counselling and guidance and job placement assistance so as to allow greater access to girls and women to education and training, both in educational institutions and the work place;

(l) Promote incentives, such as tax reduction for enterprises, that offer education and training programmes to female employees.

2. Administration

18. Administrative reforms are necessary to:

(a) Increase the number of female principals, administrators and planners at all levels of the education system (i.e., national, regional, district and local levels);

(b) Offer gender-sensitization training to all educational administrators, both men and women;

(c) Ensure the full involvement of female planners in all levels of the planning and management aspects of the educational and vocational training system;

(d) Promote research and studies to analyse all the causes of the gender gap, and to examine the values, traditions and social practices that are supportive and non-supportive of the principles of gender equality and equity;

(e) Ensure at the national, regional, district and local levels the disaggregation of all educational data by gender and by urban/rural residence, and establish educational and job opening indicators that can be used to monitor the narrowing of the gender gap;

(f) Ensure the full integration of disabled students by mainstreaming them in education and training programmes and by providing them with equal access and participation.

3. Educational inputs and processes

Schools and training centres

19. It is necessary to:

(a) Provide a greater number of places for students by constructing more schools. Vocational training should include new and innovative programmes responsive to employment requirements;

(b) Construct single-sex schools, whenever needed, and ensure that they are as well equipped as regular schools, specifically in mathematics, sciences and technical fields;

(c) Construct smaller schools (one-to-two-room multigrade schools) in remote areas to ensure access to difficult to reach communities.

Curriculum

20. It is necessary to reform the curriculum to ensure the inclusion of:

(a) Gender-sensitive contents;

(b) Relevance to daily lives and realities;

(c) Linkages to other sectors, specifically the labour market;

(d) Life skills: nutrition, health and environment;

(e) Improved science and mathematics;

(f) Education for citizenship, democracy and human rights;

(g) Family life education: family planning and parental education;

(h) Critical thinking and problem-solving;

(i) Education valuing tolerance and diversity;

(j) Career guidance and counselling.

Educational and training materials

21. It is recommended that:

(a) Newly produced textbooks and educational materials are based on a gender-equality perspective;

(b) All sex bias and sexist language be removed from all textbooks and educational materials and teaching aids;

(c) Textbook content for girls and women be aligned with employment situations and realities.

Teachers

22. It is recommended that:

(a) The number of teacher training facilities at national and district levels be increased;

(b) Service teacher training be strengthened at all levels;

(c) Gender-sensitization training for teachers which results in non-biased attitudes and improved methodologies of teaching be provided;

(d) The deployment of a sufficient number of female teachers into schools for girls be ensured.

Non-formal and informal education

23. It is necessary to ensure that there are alternative educational opportunities for out-of-school children, adolescents and adults. Whenever those non-formal and informal educational systems are created, it is important to ensure the linkages of those alternative systems with the formal systems of education and employment opportunities.

4. Media

24. It is recommended that:

(a) Policies that will gender-sensitize the media be formulated, by ensuring that the gender perspective is taken into account and that the images projected of women and men are non-stereotyped and equitable;

(b) Mechanisms that encourage women to enter the media profession be established, in order to increase their impact on the planning and implementation of media programme, and to ensure an equitable portrayal of women and men;

(c) Stronger linkages between the media and the formal and non-formal education systems be created, in order to reinforce equal opportunities and aspirations for women and men;

(d) Gender sensitization training be offered to both women and men who are already in the media and social communication profession.

5. Participation and partnerships

25. For improved participation and partnerships it is necessary to:

(a) Create an enabling environment for full participation of the different governmental agencies, employers and communities in the education and training processes;

(b) Promote partnerships and coordination among all stakeholders of education, such as ministries of education, finance, planning, and labour; teachers' associations, labour unions, businesses, non-governmental organizations, women's groups, community leaders, and the media.

6. Resources

26. It is recommended that:

(a) National resources from other sectors, especially the military sector, be reallocated to the education and training sector;

(b) Resources within the education sector be reallocated so as to ensure that the basic education budget receives at least 50 per cent of the total national education budget and to ensure that sufficient resources are allocated for measures that will increase the enrolment and retention of girls in school and women in educational programmes;

(c) Allocations, allowances or line items within the educational budget be dedicated to ensure that most of the reallocation of the educational budget is spent on specific measures to increase the enrolment and retention of girls in school and women in educational and training programmes;

(d) Community participation in the provision and management of resources for education and training be encouraged;

(e) The participation of the business community in the provision of resources and support of education and training programmes in general and girls' and women's education and training in particular be promoted. Special attention should be given to enterprise-based and on-the-job training leading to career mobility;

(f) A substantial increase be advocated in donor agencies' allocations for narrowing the gender gap in education and training;

(g) The use of debt swap and debt conversion schemes for human resources development and specifically for girls' and women's education be encouraged.

B. Access

27. Access to quality education is a human right. Ensuring access requires that girls and women have equal opportunities to participate in the educational and training system, both in quantitative and qualitative terms. Equal access means not only attaining equality in enrolment ratios but also in retention rates and cycle completion. Ensuring access requires that the cost of education does not impose a barrier to girls' and women's education and that the benefits to education are fully recognized. This means not only that adequate school

facilities exist but also that the curriculum and its content are gender-sensitive and forward-looking.

28. Access is affected by the learning environment created by the educational and training system (the schools, the teachers, and the curriculum) and the social context (the family and the community) within which educational decisions are made. Access to the educational system can be fostered by launching campaigns to mobilize the community and parents.

1. The educational system

29. The system should promote the access of girls and women to education and training by:

(a) Providing universal, compulsory and free basic education; direct costs (tuition, examination fees, textbooks, materials, uniforms, stationery) should be eliminated or reduced as much as possible; scholarships should be targeted to disadvantaged girls in both urban and rural areas;

(b) Providing an adequate number of schools with proper facilities, preferably in each community; smaller facilities should be available where needed; where this is not economically feasible, transportation should be provided. Boarding schools or dormitories provided at training centres may be a viable alternative;

(c) Ensuring that school buildings provide special facilities for girls - for example, separate toilets;

(d) Providing separate classrooms for boys and girls, where necessary;

(e) Providing a healthy environment - for example, adequate lighting and potable water for both girls and boys;

(f) Paying special attention to women and children at risk, such as those from disadvantaged socio-economic classes, ethnic minorities, scheduled castes and first-generation learners, in order to ensure that they benefit from education provisions;

(g) Promoting the participation in all aspects of the educational system of girls and women with physical or mental disabilities. In the construction of educational facilities, adequate attention should be paid to the needs of students with disabilities;

(h) Offering flexible schedules that do not compromise quality of education, given the many demands on girls' and women's time;

(i) Using remedial education rather than repetition of grades to encourage girls to complete the school cycle;

(j) Having an adequate number of motivated, gender-sensitive, and well-trained teachers. Single-sex schools and female teachers may be required in certain cultural contexts;

(k) Encouraging adequate distribution of female teachers in rural and isolated areas through financial incentives, such as housing and professional support.

30. In addition to these factors that influence the access of girls and women to all levels of education, there are certain issues relevant to the specific levels of education.

31. Secondary education should include a sufficient variety of school types and curricula to allow girls to select courses of study freely, without being confined to choose programmes designed for boys. Secondary schools should allow girls and boys open access to all types of courses. Guidance and counselling for girls should be "enabling", not "limiting". Scholarships and stipends should be offered to disadvantaged girls in urban and rural areas. Appropriate transportation should be provided.

32. Girls and women should have equal access to a diverse range of programmes, including non-traditional fields of vocational and technical training. In order to enhance the participation of girls and women, training activities should be scheduled to take into account their responsibilities.

33. Higher education should be open to all. The numerus clausus principle should be avoided, if possible. Stereotyping should be avoided. Links to the labour market should be developed by developing labour-market information systems.

34. Adult education should be given due importance. In addition to helping universalize primary education, adult education is needed for the empowerment of the learners, especially women. This should be based on needs assessment, to determine priorities and objectives. Appropriate methodology and training for adult education teachers should be used. Adult literacy should be functional and should include legal literacy for both men and women. The campaign methodology has been effective in reducing adult illiteracy. Retraining programmes should be available. There should be special curriculum designed for adults. Efforts should be made to enable re-entry into the formal school system.

35. Distance learning should be available for girls and women who are unable to attend formal school so that they have the opportunity to participate in the educational system.

36. Non-formal education should be considered as a means of educating girls and women who are out of school, but efforts should be taken so that they re-enter the formal school system, whenever possible. Non-formal education should also include various types of learning centres, including science education centres, science fairs and science clubs, and should disseminate information about technology.

2. The social context

37. Even if the school and training system offers equal access to girls and women, they may not participate because of economic, social and cultural

constraints. Participation can be increased by reducing the indirect costs of education by making provisions to reduce household burdens. Recognizing the value of girls' education, all agents including the girls and women, the family and the community should:

(a) Campaign to enrol and retain girls in schools. This could be accomplished in partnership with the State, non-governmental organizations and advocates; different strategies should be used, such as a multimedia campaign, and targeting religious and traditional leaders and the community;

(b) Enhance the value of a daughter's education for the parental family by changing those social constraints that prevent daughters from contributing to the welfare of their parents and natal family;

(c) Initiate labour-market reforms to guarantee that women receive the economic benefits associated with education or training;

(d) Undertake adult literacy campaigns that can make parents and family members literate and also help increase girls' education;

(e) Provide child-care facilities;

(f) Increase the availability of water, fuel and food.

3. Quality and relevance

38. The system should improve the curricula, content, materials, technology and teaching methodologies in order to enhance the access of girls and women to education or training that is gender-sensitive, relevant and which motivates girls to complete their education. Special consideration should be given to:

(a) Curriculum: guidance and counselling; science, technology, and mathematics education; the use of the mother tongue; gender-sensitive teaching and training methodologies and strong relation between curriculum and labour market needs and evolution;

(b) The status of teachers: salaries, conditions of service, training and responsibility in decision-making;

(c) The community: school-based decision-making, private sector involvement, government, non-governmental organizations and trade union cooperation and coordination.

4. Monitoring and evaluation

39. Governments should bear responsibility for monitoring the implementation of these suggestions. In addition, it is necessary to:

(a) Establish autonomous monitoring units which may be funded by three sources: one third of funds from the Government, one third from the United Nations, and one third from other sources;

(b) Collect data that is disaggregated (by gender, level, and type of education, urban/rural residence etc.) and that can be used to conduct both quantitative and qualitative analysis, in order to evaluate progress.

C. Learning environment

40. The learning environment provides the context for interactions in the teaching and learning process. In order to provide an enabling learning environment for the education and training of girls and women, attention should be paid to components such as the physical environment, the teacher, the curriculum, learning materials, alternative delivery systems, adult and lifelong education and higher education.

1. Physical environment

41. The physical conditions of the schools or training centres and classrooms affect access and quality of education and can determine the participation of girls and women, in particular. There is need, therefore, to provide appropriate facilities in schools to cater for the needs of all students and trainees, including those with disabilities.

2. Teachers

42. The home and the community usually provide the first learning environment for children. Within this environment, by the time they enter primary school, boys and girls have been socialized into gender roles and may have acquired different bodies of knowledge. The task of the formal and non-formal aspects of the schooling facilities should be to create an environment that will equalize the life chances of both sexes. The teacher should be an agent of change in the learning environment. The presence of female teachers in schools has a positive impact on the education of girls. Female teachers serve as role models for girls and, more importantly, in many societies, they provide for the physical and emotional well-being of girls.

43. There is need therefore to:

(a) Facilitate the recruitment of female teachers where necessary. Governments should adjust the entry qualifications of teachers in order to favour the employment of women teachers, provided that opportunities for academic and professional advancement of these women are made available; the personal development of female teachers is in itself crucial to the success of their role vis-à-vis the female student;

(b) Favour the employment of female teachers in traditionally male-dominated disciplines, especially in the natural sciences, mathematics and technical and vocational education;

(c) Pay special attention to gender-sensitization in teacher training programmes and expose both female and male teachers to these programmes, including the use of non-sexist language in content and methodology as a way of promoting equality;

(d) Include in teacher education programmes, guidance and counselling components that encompass human rights education, formation of self-identity, interpersonal communication skills and women's issues;

(e) Train teachers in classroom management that emphasizes equality in the physical arrangements, interpersonal relationships and interactive methodologies;

(f) Train teachers for science, technology and mathematics education by taking into account the barriers that prevent girls and women from participating fully in these areas.

3. Curriculum

44. Special attention should be paid to the curriculum to ensure that it addresses equally the interests and needs of all students. The curriculum should be free of gender bias which creates or reinforces stereotypes. The curriculum should also provide an opportunity for girls and boys to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes for a better understanding and acceptance of each other as equal partners. There is need therefore, to:

(a) Understand the context or environment from which the curriculum is derived;

(b) Pay special attention to curricula at early levels to provide motivation and facilitate achievement and retention;

(c) Develop relevant curricula which emphasize the needs and aspirations of girls and boys in compliance with the principles of equality;

(d) Reform curricula so as to enable girls and boys to acquire the generic skills of literacy, numeracy, problem-solving, decision-making, critical thinking and information-processing;

(e) Develop curricula that enable both sexes to understand and transform social and cultural conditions currently shaped by gender-based beliefs and practices;

(f) Include elements, such as family-life education and guidance and counselling, which deal specifically with gender-related issues;

(g) Establish mechanisms for continuous monitoring, evaluation and review, especially in terms of the achievement levels of girls and boys, including the development of indicators;

(h) Provide opportunities for girls and boys to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes that enable them to understand their environment and prepare them to participate more meaningfully in the productive sector;

(i) Incorporate popularization activities to educate girls and boys about the role of science and technology in their lives and raise awareness of the importance of science and technology in a changing environment;

(j) Provide technical and vocational education and training for girls and boys and foster freedom of choice in their selection of options;

(k) Develop curricula for technical and vocational education and training, taking into account the demands of a changing labour market;

(l) Provide all students with opportunities to acquire learning-to-learn skills so that they can adapt easily tc a changing environment;

(m) Encourage girls to participate in physical education programmes and sport as a way of fostering health and self-esteem;

(n) Provide physical education programmes that take into consideration the needs of girls and boys.

4. Learning materials

45. Learning materials, especially textbooks, should be motivating, free from gender-bias, interactive and readily available. There is need therefore, to:

(a) Ensure that adequate resources from budgets for recurrent expenditure are allocated for teaching and learning materials;

(b) For both boys and girls, ensure that learning materials are developed using knowledge obtained from the community as well as from public and private sectors; produce materials that are low-cost and linguistically appropriate for easy comprehension; use the environment as a resource for teaching and learning; use a variety of learning materials for the full participation of all students, including the disabled, and make reading materials available through mobile library services;

(c) Produce materials that provide role models for girls and women, remove gender stereotypes and foster the concept of choice by both sexes;

(d) Develop programmes and materials for the acquisition of scientific literacy and technological literacy by both girls and boys.

5. Alternative delivery systems

46. To improve the participation of girls and women in education and training, attention should be paid to alternative delivery systems - for example, non-formal and distance education methodologies. There is need, therefore, to:

(a) Understand the obstacles to girls' and women's education in a given community in order to develop relevant education delivery systems;

(b) Establish partnerships between Governments, non-governmental organizations and community groups to enable females who are out of school to gain access to education and training;

(c) Ensure that learners receive quality education through the training of tutors/facilitators and through an adequate supply of learning materials;

(d) Facilitate mobility for continuing education by articulating non-formal education and mainstream education;

(e) Provide programmes for developing skills for negotiating, bargaining, resolving conflicts and creating political and gender awareness;

(f) Establish structures and use available communication technologies to provide education and training through the use of distance education methodologies;

(g) Train teachers to prepare and use distance education materials in the delivery of education by distance;

(h) Use distance education to train female teachers who have difficulty leaving their homes and communities for training programmes;

(i) Provide incentives and appropriate certification and institute any other necessary measures to ensure and maintain a high status of alternative schemes for the delivery of education;

(j) Establish systems involving the community for the planning, management, implementation and monitoring of non-formal education programmes;

(k) Recruit female teachers for non-formal education with assistance from community groups.

6. Adult and lifelong education

47. Women who are literate and educated are more likely to recognize the value of education for their daughters. Education and training enable women to be equal partners with men in the family and society, in decision-making, inter alia. They are also more likely to take advantage of lifelong educational opportunities. It is, therefore, necessary to:

(a) Make use of or create a demand for adult literacy programmes for women through advocacy and campaign, by linking functional literacy to income generation and other productive activities;

(b) Develop and implement various innovative programmes to meet the education and training needs of women in a variety of socio-cultural situations;

(c) Provide legal literacy programmes for both men and women;

(d) Provide science and technology programmes to enable women to employ strategies that are helpful to them in their daily lives;

(e) Provide appropriate education and training for sustainable use of resources and protection of the environment;

(f) Provide education that helps women to improve their productivity in agriculture;

(g) Provide opportunity and support mechanisms for women to acquire life skills;

(h) Provide opportunity for girls and women who have dropped out of school to continue their education;

(i) Provide skills training programmes for entry into the labour market or for self-employment;

(j) Provide entrepreneurial skills training for both sexes;

(k) Use labour market information in making decisions about programmes in technical and vocational education and training;

(l) Provide supportive policies and credit facilities to enable skilled women to enter into the productive sector;

(m) Provide programmes for retraining women – for example, in situations of retrenchment, migration, displacement and disruption of family life through divorce, separation, death or absence of spouse;

(n) Provide incentives for companies to train women for employment.

7. Higher education

48. In order to develop a cadre of professional women who can provide leadership at political, policy and managerial levels and serve as role models for girls and women, attention should be paid to the education of women at the tertiary level. It is, therefore, necessary to:

(a) Institute schemes for improving women's access to and participation in higher education;

(b) Review entry qualifications to make them more realistic and provide preparatory programmes to improve access by women to tertiary education, especially in non-traditional areas of study;

(c) Provide flexibility in the entry to and organization of programmes to enable women to complete tertiary education at their own pace;

(d) Support teaching and research in women's studies that will enrich the body of knowledge to formulate strategies for improving the status of women;

(e) Establish supportive mechanisms to enable women to be more active politically and to take leadership roles.

D. Girls and women in especially difficult circumstances

1. Those in refugee and other war-affected populations

49. The Convention on the Rights of the Child specifies that all children are entitled to education, even if they have been displaced within their own country or across international boundaries. Where the country concerned cannot meet the cost of providing education for a displaced population, the international community, in the spirit of the Convention, should support a rapid, continuing and solutions-oriented educational response. Since displacement can adversely affect female enrolment, agencies providing emergency education programmes should structure them to encourage female participation. To achieve this objective, it is necessary to:

(a) Consult with refugee women's committees, teachers and parents regarding physical accommodation, school timings, inclusion of locally relevant pre-vocational or other topics, arrangements for girls after puberty, use of open learning and distance education and motivation for girls' attendance;

(b) Appoint female refugees as teachers as far as possible, with in-service training to provide necessary support;

(c) Provide literacy and numeracy courses and post-literacy materials for refugee teenage girls and women, linked to practical life-skill messages, legal literacy and education for peace and conflict resolution; also second-chance primary education, if desired;

(d) Promote vocational training programmes for women, linked to work-experience and income-generation opportunities, with the use of informal apprenticeships and community-based mobile courses, targeted preferentially to needy female-headed households;

(e) Mobilize financial resources earmarked for the promotion of education and training for refugee girls and women.

2. Those at risk due to economic pressures, or membership in minority and/or socially disadvantaged groups

50. Large numbers of girls and women are being forced by poverty into the sex trade either as migrants or through entrapment by commercial intermediaries. Female street children are also at risk of prostitution. Education and training have a vital role to play in mitigating these effects. Steps should be taken to:

(a) Promote and extend school attendance of at-risk girls by extending, for example, the period of basic schooling, making this extended basic education available at village schools near the girls' homes, providing scholarships to at-risk girls;

(b) Provide non-formal education and skills training, linked to projects supporting self-employment, entry to waged employment or formation of cooperatives;

(c) Train community-service workers and non-governmental organizations' staff working with vulnerable rural populations or female street children, in working with communities and at-risk girls, to generate awareness of sex-trade dangers, notably HIV/AIDS;

(d) Initiate projects providing social support, psycho-social counselling, training and job placement for girls and women leaving the sex trade;

(e) Provide knowledge and services to enable girls and women to be informed about and protected against AIDS/HIV and other health hazards;

(f) Ensure that women and children in prison receive basic schooling, vocational training and counselling designed to promote economic self-reliance and self-confidence on release from detention.

3. Those in unequal labour situations

51. Girls and women entrapped in bonded labour and other unequal employment situations, including girls in child labour, are vulnerable to sexual harassment and condemned to a life of poverty. As an interim measure, and contributing to the discontinuation of these practices, steps should be taken to:

(a) Require employers to ensure basic schooling to all child workers;

(b) Support, encourage and protect programmes of non-formal education and training for adolescent girls and women in bonded labour and analogous situations.

UNITED
NATIONS

E

Economic and Social Council

Distr.
GENERAL

E/CN.6/1995/12
21 February 1995

ORIGINAL: ENGLISH

COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN
Thirty-ninth session
New York, 15 March-4 April 1995
Item 6 of the provisional agenda*

PRIORITY THEMES

PEACE: WOMEN IN INTERNATIONAL DECISION-MAKING

Participation of women in political life and decision-making

Report of the Secretary-General

SUMMARY

In 1990, the Commission on the Status of Women decided to include "Women in international decision-making" on the agenda of its thirty-ninth session in 1995 as the priority theme under the rubric "Peace". The present report, the fifth in the framework of considerations by the Commission of the issue of the participation of women in political life and decision-making, focuses on the participation of women in peace and security areas at the national and international levels, including the United Nations peace and security operations. It provides an analysis of new data on the participation of women in parliaments and Governments world wide, with special emphasis on peace and security areas, and in the United Nations system, including peace and security operations. It states the hypothesis that women's participation brought new elements, values and perspectives to those operations. It also presents the argument that if women were involved on an equal basis in political life, including decision-making, at the national and international levels, they would make a qualitative difference, in terms of content and style, to the benefit of society and the achievement of the goal of peace.

* E/CN.6/1995/1.

95-05200 (E) 060395 070395

/...

CONTENTS

	Paragraphs	Page
INTRODUCTION	1 - 3	3
I. PARTICIPATION BY WOMEN IN INTERNATIONAL DECISION-MAKING: AN ANALYSIS	4 - 32	3
A. Women in national decision-making	7 - 11	4
B. Women in the United Nations	12 - 16	6
C. Women in multilateral diplomacy	17 - 19	9
D. Women in national military and police forces	20 - 24	9
E. Women in peace-keeping	25 - 32	10
II. CONTRIBUTIONS BY, OBSTACLES AND INCENTIVES TO WOMEN IN PEACE AND SECURITY	33 - 41	14
III. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR INCREASING WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN PEACE AND SECURITY AREAS	42 - 45	17

INTRODUCTION

1. In 1990, the Commission on the Status of Women decided to include "Women in international decision-making" on the agenda of its thirty-ninth session in 1995 as the priority theme under the rubric "Peace".

2. The present report, the fifth in a series of reports to the Commission on the issue of the participation of women in political life and decision-making, focuses on the participation of women in peace and security areas at the national and international levels, including the United Nations peace and security operations.

3. In order to assist with the preparation of the report, an expert group meeting on gender and the Agenda for Peace was convened by the Division for the Advancement of Women, Department for Policy Coordination and Sustainable Development, in New York, from 5 to 9 December 1994. The meeting focused on the participation of women in the implementation of the agenda for peace and worked out recommendations aimed at increased participation of women in the United Nations peace and security operations and incorporation of women's perspectives in all peace-related activities. Particularly relevant recommendations of the meeting are included in the report.

I. PARTICIPATION BY WOMEN IN INTERNATIONAL DECISION-MAKING: AN ANALYSIS

4. One of the most significant and prevailing gaps between de jure and de facto equality is the low participation of women in politics and decision-making. Despite the long existence of international norms and electoral rights at the national level which allow women to vote and to hold office on equal terms with men, the proportion of women in decision-making bodies remains low.

5. The lack of equal participation of women in political decision-making, deprives women of the enjoyment of important rights and responsibilities as citizens. Women's interests and perspectives cannot be represented and protected at the policy-making levels. Women cannot influence key decisions, whether in terms of national budgets, major reforms or socio-economic models to be chosen, all of which have consequences for the society as a whole and for future generations. The decision-making process is deprived of women's skills and distinctive perspectives.

6. Existing evidence indicates that in the areas of peace, security, conflict resolution and international peace negotiations, the participation of women in general and in decision-making in particular is lower than in any other area. These areas, however, are critical for the basic choices which humankind makes concerning war or peace; public policy and spending on military or civilian purposes; the proliferation of weapons through the arms trade; or disarmament and reconversion of military resources for peaceful purposes.

A. Women in national decision-making

7. In history there have been only 23 female heads of State or government, democratically elected (table 1). All of them held office after the Second World War and most, in the past 10 years.

Table 1. Percentage of women in government decision-making positions, all sectors, by level and region, 1987 and 1994

Region	1987			1994		
	Ministerial	Sub-ministerial	Total	Ministerial	Sub-ministerial	Total
Africa	2.9	5.0	4.0	5.4	6.8	6.3
Latin America and the Caribbean	3.1	8.2	7.3	7.5	11.4	10.4
Western Europe and others	7.1	7.8	9.6	15.2	12.3	13.0
Asia and Pacific	1.8	3.1	3.0	2.9	2.6	2.9
Eastern Europe	3.0	3.9	3.5	2.6	6.1	5.0
World	3.4	5.7	5.4	6.2	7.1	6.8

Source: Division for the Advancement of Women, from World Government Directory, 1994 (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1994)

8. According to the latest data compiled by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) at 30 June 1994, the average percentage of women in parliaments was 10.51 per cent, with 10.8 per cent on average in a single, or lower, chamber and 8.6 per cent in other chambers. In only 21 out of 178 national parliaments did women constitute 20-39.4 per cent of the membership. Only in Norway and Finland did the proportion rise above 39 per cent. There is no information on the distribution of women among the parliamentary committees and commissions, but there is an indication that, as in Governments, most of women concentrate in the committees dealing with social issues, education, labour or health, while a lower proportion of women is found in the committees concerned with foreign affairs, military and the interior.

9. Government decision-making takes place ultimately at the ministerial level, where decisions are formally taken by the members of cabinet, and at sub-ministerial levels, where most of decisions are prepared and where key decision makers are located. The proportion of women in these positions in 1987

and 1994 is shown in table 1. In 1994, 62 countries had no women ministers at the cabinet level.

10. In political ministries, such as foreign affairs, interior, and defence, women constituted an even lower proportion, as can be seen in table 2.

Table 2. Percentage of women in decision-making positions in political ministries, a/ by level and region, 1987 and 1994

Region	1987			1994		
	Ministerial	Sub-ministerial	Total	Ministerial	Sub-ministerial	Total
Africa	1.3	4.5	2.0	3.6	4.1	4.0
Latin America and the Caribbean	3.4	8.6	5.0	3.4	12.1	10.4
Western Europe and others	4.1	9.2	6.1	7.5	10.6	9.5
Asia and the Pacific	0.2	1.4	1.0	2.8	2.5	3.0
Eastern Europe	2.9	2.1	2.4	0.0	0.5	0.5
World	2.0	5.2	3.1	3.6	5.5	5.3
Nordic	11.7	10.1	11.8	27.3	12.6	19.2
Caribbean	10.0	23.6	11.5	3.3	23.4	18.9
East and South-east Asia	0.0	1.4	0.9	0.0	0.4	0.3

Source: Division for the Advancement of Women, from World Government Directory, 1994 (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1994).

a/ Foreign affairs, defence, interior.

11. There are two paths to power and political decision-making: through the political process itself and through the civil service. The first leads mainly to participation in parliaments and other elected bodies, in positions as elected head of State or Government, and to nominations to the position of cabinet minister or other top political function. The second path leads to high positions within the administration, up to sub-ministerial levels. The positions are, in principle, non-political, although they are, in practice, often politically influenced, especially at the top. The professional career path appears to be most typical at the decision-making level in political areas. Most of high-level functionaries in foreign affairs, defence and the interior arrive at these positions through long-term career development, in the foreign service, military, security or the police. They also constitute the main

recruitment pool from which international peace negotiators, peace keepers, security and disarmament experts are drawn. Since women are a minority in the foreign services of most countries and are highly underrepresented in the areas of security, the military and the police, they are practically excluded from decision-making or prevented from reaching what has been termed a "critical mass" where one sex is no longer in a significant minority and can function naturally in these areas, both at the national and international levels.

B. Women in the United Nations

12. The United Nations is similar in structure to national mechanisms of power and decision-making. It consists of parliament-like organs to which representatives are designated by their respective countries; and it has an international civil service, which has some of the characteristics of a national bureaucracy, including its organizing principles related to recruitment, promotion and career development.

13. Throughout its 50 years of history, the vast majority of the delegates selected by their national Governments to represent their countries at United Nations bodies have been male. Very few women have been designated to participate, especially at the decision-making level and in political areas. For example, of the 49 presidents of the General Assembly, elected since 1945, only two were women, Ms. Vijaya Lakshmi Pandit of India in 1953 (eighth session) and Ms. Angie Brooks of Liberia in 1969 (twenty-fourth session). Since its establishment in 1945, the International Court of Justice has had no women judges. Among the numerous United Nations conferences held since 1945 and headed by appointed senior officials of the United Nations, only six were headed by women, and four of those were world conferences on women.

14. Of the 89 executive heads of various organizations of the United Nations system elected or appointed by member States, there have been no women. However, four women have been confirmed by the General Assembly as heads of major United Nations programmes, including the High Commissioner for Refugees (Ms. Sadako Ogata, of Japan), the Executive Director of the UN/FAO World Food Programme (Ms. Catherine Bertini, of the United States), the Executive Director of the United Nations Environment Programme (Ms. Elizabeth Dowdswell, of Canada) and the Executive Director of the United Nations Population Fund (Dr. Nafis Sadik, of Pakistan).

15. In the United Nations Secretariat, women have always constituted a minority of the professional staff. Following the conclusions of the 1985 World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women, the General Assembly set a target of 30 per cent women among the professional staff in the Secretariat by 1990. This target was met in 1991 and subsequently revised to 35 per cent by the year 1995, with a target of 25 per cent set for the upper, middle, and senior management levels. The percentage of women professionals in the United Nations Secretariat by level, in the period 1949-1993 is reflected in table 3 below.

16. The representation of women professionals in the United Nations Secretariat, in selected agencies and in political areas are presented in tables 3, 4 and 5 below.

Table 3. Percentage of women professionals in the United Nations Secretariat, by level, 1949-1993

Year	D-2 and above	D-1 and P-5	P-4 and P-3	P-2 and P-1	All professionals
1949	2.00	3.36	19.43	42.88	23.42
1955	0.00	2.15	13.26	30.19	16.76
1960	1.82	3.04	17.93	31.71	18.73
1965	0.00	4.26	20.10	24.65	17.84
1970	5.10	5.90	18.79	36.12	20.18
1975	2.88	7.28	19.38	33.83	19.40
1980	4.72	8.49	24.47	39.08	22.40
1985	4.73	10.60	28.60	40.33	25.36
1990	8.13	15.64	33.79	43.78	29.98
1993	12.75	18.69	33.87	47.46	31.19

Source: Division for the Advancement of Women, compiled from reports of the Secretary-General.

Table 4. Gender distribution of professional staff in the political areas of the United Nations Secretariat, by department or office and by grade, as of 30 June 1994

Department/Office	USG F	USG M	ASG F	ASG M	D-2 F	D-2 M	Percentage of women at D-2 and above	Total F	Total M	Percentage of women professionals
Dept. of Peace-keeping Operations	0	1	0	2	1	3	14.3	11	22	33.3
Dept. of Political Affairs	0	1	1	0	1	9	16.7	54	82	39.7
Executive Office of the Secretary-General	0	1	0	3	1	1	16.7	11	16	40.7
Dept. of Humanitarian Affairs	0	1	0	0	0	3	0.0	8	30	21.1

Source: "Human resources management: composition of the Secretariat" (A/49/527).

Note: F Female
M Male

Table 5. Percentage of staff members in selected United Nations agencies and of total staff who are women at the professional level or at the D-2 level or above, 1975-1994

Agency	Professional staff 1975	1979	1986	1992	1994	Staff at D-2 level or above 1975	1979	1986	1992
UNHCR	14.1	15.0	23.4	32.0	32.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.7
UNRWA	7.4	2.7	..	15.6	13.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
IAEA	11.9	11.1	11.6	14.2	14.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total staff	15.8	17.2	22.8	24.9	28.0	1.6	2.6	3.6	6.7

Source: "Personnel questions: composition of the Secretariat" from 1976, 1980, 1987 and 1993 (A/31/154, A/35/528, A/42/636, A/48/559); 1994 data from "Human resources management" (A/49/527).

C. Women in multilateral diplomacy

17. The data on the participation of women in diplomacy are fragmented and incomplete; no world-wide survey has been carried out in order to assess the current situation. Only a few countries reported on women in diplomacy in the 1994 review and appraisal of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies. However, they emphasized that women's participation in the foreign service and diplomacy did not match their substantive contributions to peace at the non-governmental level. The number of women ambassadors remained very low. Only a few women diplomats have been involved in peace or disarmament negotiations world wide. Even in the Scandinavian countries, where the status of women is more advanced, the participation of women in diplomacy remains relatively low, especially in political areas.

18. Women continue to be largely absent in the highest ranks of the permanent missions to the United Nations in New York. In 1989, in the permanent missions to the United Nations women constituted 20 per cent of the diplomatic personnel, and 57 delegations had no women on their diplomatic staff. As of January 1994, only seven missions out of 187 were headed by women. Among the 240 delegates holding ambassadorial rank, only 11 were women. Of the total diplomatic staff of missions, women represented only 22 per cent. In the permanent missions of 67 member States, there were no women at all. The figures reflect negligible increase since 1949, when women at the diplomatic level in permanent missions to the United Nations constituted 16 per cent of the total.

19. Women continue to be underrepresented in such areas of multilateral diplomacy as disarmament, security, peace negotiations and conflict resolution, which are crucial for the preservation of peace and stability as compared to other fields of multilateral diplomacy - i.e., social or cultural fields.

D. Women in national military and police forces

20. The participation of women in military service has been considered a controversial issue. Many men and women think that it is a concern primarily of men.

21. By being outside of the military, women cannot be involved in decision-making regarding the use of military forces, changes in military institutions and overall control over its performance. Any military normally accounts for a large proportion of public expenditure, constitutes an important employer and provides career opportunities and training which can lead to non-military careers.

22. The accessibility of the military service to women has been rarely reported by the States parties to CEDAW. Some countries - for example, Australia, Austria, Germany, New Zealand and Thailand - have certain reservations to various provisions of the Convention, including articles 7 and 8 which refer to the participation of women in the military service. The largest amount of data exists on the members States of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and the Western European Union. Half of these countries have legislation and policies excluding women from combat, although women's service in other areas of

the military has been encouraged with equal pay, training and discipline as those of men. Most rules permit pregnant women to remain in the service and provide parental leave, but many limit the rank that women can achieve.

23. In only a few countries are combat positions fully open to women. They include Belgium, Canada, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Venezuela and Zambia. But even in those armies, a majority of women are not in combat units. In most countries, women in the military remain continue to be represented mainly in the medical, administrative, legal, communication, logistics, transportation and teaching branches. According to the national reports for the second review and appraisal of the Nairobi Strategies, the participation of women in the armed forces, as officers and even at the highest posts, is on the increase, reaching around 12 per cent in a few countries, including a few countries with women in the top ranks. The same tendency was noted with regard to women cadets and graduates of military academies.

24. Analyses of national reports submitted by the 19 countries addressing this subject in the review and appraisal suggested that, in most of the 19 countries, the participation of women in the police force, both in terms of numbers and rank, was on the increase. Most of the increase took place in the past five years. The same is true for female cadets and trainees, who in 1993 reached 33 per cent of the total in one country. In one country the percentage of female police chiefs was 13 per cent. However, most women in the police force were said to have been assigned to areas dealing with violence against women, including rape, and to female prisons and women prisoners, with limited possibilities for promotion and career development.

E. Women in peace-keeping

25. The issue of the participation of women in the military and police takes on particular significance in the United Nations peace and security operations, the main purpose of which is to avoid or defuse conflict and to work out peaceful solutions. The absence of women among the military personnel in the United Nations peace-keeping forces reflects the absence of women in the military forces of those countries which provide troops to United Nations peace-keeping operations. Women, however, have been active, although highly underrepresented, participants in peace-keeping operations in civilian roles, performing a variety of functions as medical and administrative personnel, in supply and logistics, in supervising elections and as negotiators and trainers for national reconciliation and democracy-building.

26. From the establishment of the United Nations through 1993 there were 36 peace and security operations, 20 of which took place after 1986. Almost all early peace-keeping operations, except for one in the Congo from 1960 to 1964, were exclusively military in orientation. In the period 1957-1989, there were only 20 women in a total of approximately 10,000 military personnel. This was mainly the result of the exclusion of women from national military forces in the majority of countries and an even greater prohibition of women in combat roles. As a result, fewer women were included in the national military contingents, and those women who were included were mainly in the medical field. Despite an expansion in the number of peace-keeping operations to 17 in 1993 and the

presence of women as officers in combat units, of four countries, the percentage of women in military and police peace-keeping missions remained very low, around 2 per cent. The distribution of female personnel among various missions is shown in tables 6 and 7.

27. During the period 1945-1988, the participation of women in the civilian components of the peace-keeping operations ranged from 5.3 per cent to 23 per cent, with the highest participation in the 1961 Congo operation. With their roles expanded beyond strictly military functions to supervision of elections, protection of human rights, police work, advisory and humanitarian assistance, and promotion of national reconciliation and democracy, more women have participated. For example, in 1989 the percentage of women in the Professional category (P-1 to P-4) of the peace-keeping operations was 38.6 per cent, in comparison with 35 per cent in the Secretariat, and at the P-5 level, 18 per cent and 13.5 per cent, respectively. This relatively high percentage resulted from the greater participation of women in UNTAG (Namibia) due to the creation of a more non-discriminatory and transparent selection process by the Special Representative of the Secretary-General. Women constituted 40 per cent of Professional staff and were represented at the senior level in UNTAG. Although the top posts were held by men, there were 5 women at the Assistant Director (D-1, D-2) level, and 3 out of 10 regional directors were women.

28. The positive experience of Namibia has not, however, been replicated in any other peace-keeping operation. Another large operation, in Cambodia (UNAMIC and UNTAC, 1991-1993), was particularly disappointing. Women held no decision-making posts even though many female civilians were involved. All 7 D-2 director's posts and the 13 regional director's posts (P-5 to D-1) were occupied by men.

29. In 1993, women constituted 31.8 per cent of the civilian staff (excluding locally recruited staff) serving in 11 out of 19 peace and security missions. The 12 missions with the greatest participation of women were established after 1990. However, the majority of the women in those missions were in clerical grades.

30. Throughout the history of peace-keeping there have been only two women at the top decision-making level: Ms. Margaret Anstee, Special Representative in Angola (UNAVEM) and Ms. Angela King, the Chief of Mission in South Africa and then Deputy Special Representative. Ms. Anstee was the only woman among 25 Special Representatives appointed by the Secretary-General since 1945. Ms. King was a head of UNOMSA in its earliest phase, when it was small and included 50 per cent women. With the expansion of the mission before the elections and the arrival of a new male head of mission and of many male monitors selected by Governments, the participation of women dropped dramatically.

Table 6. International United Nations civilian staff in peace-keeping and peacemaking missions, by category and mission, December 1993

		All categories		P5-USG		P1-P4		GS1-GS7		FS1-FS7	
Mission	Country	Total	Percentage female	Total	Percentage female	Total	Percentage female	Total	Percentage female	Total	Percentage female
UNOSOM II	Somalia	373	27	18	0	108	15.7	150	54	97	3.1
UNTAC	Cambodia	338	39.9	6	0	45	15.6	209	57.9	78	9
UNPROFOR	Yugoslavia	314	41.4	20	15	83	18.1	159	68.6	52	5.8
ONUMOZ	Mozambique	167	35.5	10	10	41	34.1	68	58.8	49	8.2
UNIFIL	Lebanon	103	21.6	3	0	15	6.7	44	70.6	101	3
UNFICYP	Cyprus	31	22.6	4	0	2	50	6	66.7	19	10.6
UNDOF	Golan Heights	30	6.7	2	0	0	0	0	0	28	7.1
ONUSAL	El Salvador	140	42.1	17	5.9	82	48.8	26	65.4	16	6.3
UNIKOM	Kuwait/Iraq	78	17.9	4	25	5	0	26	46.2	43	2.3
MINURSO	Western Sahara	100	25	5	0	23	26.1	47	40.4	27	0
UNAVEM II	Angola	50	28	5	0	7	14.3	22	59.1	16	0
UNAMIR	Rwanda	48	29.2	3	0	4	25	21	61.9	20	0
UNTSO	Jerusalem	141	13.5	3	0	0	0	16	81.3	122	4.9
UNOMIL	Liberia	22	31.8	0	0	2	0	11	54.5	9	11.1
MICIVIH	Haiti			0		0		0		0	
UNMOGIP	India/ Pakistan	24	12.5	1	0	0	0	0	0	23	13
UNOMIG	Georgia	4	25	1		0	0	1	0	2	50

Source: Division for the Advancement of Women, from information provided by the Field Operations Division.

Table 7. Current personnel contributed by Member States to United Nations peace-keeping missions, by mission, 1993

Mission	Country	All personnel		Military a/		Civilian police		Military observers	
		Total	Percentage female	Total	Percentage female	Total	Percentage female	Total	Percentage female
UNOSOM II	Somalia	29 703	2.1	29 703	2.1	0	na		
UNTAC b/	Cambodia	19 232	na	15 684	na	3 548	0.2	486	na
UNPROFOR	Yugoslavia	24 853	1.6	24 200	1.6	653	2.1	592	0
ONUMOZ	Mozambique	6 501	0.1	6 501	0.1	0	na	302	0
UNIFIL	Lebanon	5 247	2.3	5 247	2.3	0	na		
UNFICYP	Cyprus	1 237	1.1	1 201	0.7	36	16.7	12	0
UNDOF	Golan Heights	1 103	4.0	1 103	4.0	0	na		
ONUSAL c/	El Salvador	706	0.3	161	0.6	545	0.2	161	0.6
UNIKOM	Kuwait/Iraq	369	1.9	369	1.9	0	na	254	0
MINURSO d/	Western Sahara	350	9.4	324	10.2	26	0	233	3
UNAVEM II	Angola	316	1.0	256	0	60	5	256	0
UNAMIR	Rwanda	512	0	510	0	2	0	66	0
UNTSO	Jerusalem	220	0	220	0	0	na	220	0
UNOMIL	Liberia	246	0	246	0	0		181	0
MICIVIH	Haiti	113	2.7	62	0	51	5.9		
UNMOGIP	India/ Pakistan	38	0	38	0	0		38	0
UNOMIG	Georgia	12	0	12	0	0		12	0

Source: Division for the Advancement of Women, from information provided by the Field Operations Division.

a/ Including all military personnel (e.g., officers, enlisted military observers), excluding civilian police.

b/ Figures reflect staffing levels at second quarter, 1993.

c/ Figures reflect deployment of personnel during the entire period of 1993.

d/ Military figures based on field communiqué and lengths of rotations among Member State contributors.

31. National reports in the second review and appraisal provided information on national contingents - in particular, in "Operation Desert Storm" in Kuwait in 1990-1991 - where women represented 7 per cent of the military forces. They worked in all locations, including undeveloped desert areas, as clerks, mechanics, health care providers, fuel handlers, intelligence analysts, helicopter pilots, military police. They were banned from combat but received all relevant allowances and medals. Perceptions of women's performance were highly positive. Women endured harsh conditions similar to those of men. Their physical strength was not an issue. Gender was not a deterrent to a unit's cohesion, and mixed units were sometimes judged to have performed better than others.

32. Women, whether military, police, or civilian, have participated at all levels of the operations and have proved to be efficient, dedicated and ready to endure hardship and undertake any assignment. However, women do not receive equal treatment with men in recruitment to peace and security operations, placement, assignment of responsibilities and full utilization of their skills. With increased civilian and political functions in these operations, women's almost complete exclusion from national military contingents is no longer an excuse for their relatively low representation.

II. CONTRIBUTIONS BY, OBSTACLES AND INCENTIVES TO WOMEN IN PEACE AND SECURITY

33. Small-group research on task-oriented bodies suggests that, in order to bring substantive difference into decision-making in terms of content and priorities, style, working climate, and group dynamics, a "critical mass" must be reached, involving at least 30-35 per cent of any minority group. Women have achieved this critical mass at the national decision-making level in only a few countries. Experience shows that when women in those countries acted in solidarity they were able to have a visible impact on political decisions and political culture. Women's different political style has also been noted. Whenever women have joined decision-making bodies in sufficient numbers, they have created a more collaborative atmosphere, characterized by mutual respect, independent of prevailing political differences, and sought consensus. They were focused more on solving than discussing problems. All of those characteristics would be particularly beneficial if applied to peace and security matters, conflict prevention and resolution, and peace-building.

34. While information on women's influence at the top decision-making level is naturally limited to those few countries that achieved "critical mass", there is increasing evidence that the attitudes of women politicians, and in particular women's groups at the grass-roots level, are different from those of men to many world problems, including peace and security.

35. According to public opinion polls, surveys and other sources of information in North America and Western Europe, women are less militaristic, more concerned with the preservation of peace and more opposed to any form of increased militarization or nuclear energy than men. The differences between the attitudes of men and women towards national policy issues, including peace and security issues, have been observed in a number of countries. For example,

studies in the United States have shown that women office holders have different attitudes to war and peace, nuclear energy, capital punishment and reproductive rights. Analyses of voting patterns in the United States House of Representatives during 1969-1983 confirmed these differences. Women political leaders were more opposed to use of military force and more supportive of international organizations.

36. For example, in the second review and appraisal, the United States national report confirmed the existence of a gender gap in men's and women's attitudes to war and peace, and substantial differences were reflected by public opinion polls in relation to defence spending, social programmes and funding priorities.

37. In some developing countries women have succeeded in placing issues of their concern on the public agenda. Women in India and Kenya have greatly changed public attitudes and policies towards environmental issues. Women in Mexico and Brazil have changed both attitudes and legislation related to rape and domestic violence, making them serious criminal offences. Women in South Africa have proposed gender-sensitive and balanced legislation.

38. With regard to United Nations evidence on peace and security operations, an internal review by male and female participants in recent peace and security operations of the United Nations concluded that the participation of women was a catalyst for a number of new attitudes and initiatives. For example:

(a) When there was a critical mass of women in the peace and security operation, women in the host country also tended to mobilize themselves;

(b) Such issues as the need for a code of conduct for the participants in peace and security operations were placed on the agenda;

(c) The women were perceived as diffusers of tension, as compassionate, unwilling to apply force, providing an element of reconciliation; better prepared to listen and to learn from the situation at hand; reflecting the image of stability and moral authority which fostered the peace process. Their presence seemed to reinforce a commitment to the principle that United Nations peace-keepers were not armed and could only use their weapons in self-defence;

(d) The women demonstrated an ability to gain the confidence and trust of local people;

(e) The women were perceived as less threatening negotiators; active in proposing solutions; more action-oriented and more willing to undertake "unorthodox" actions such as participating in community meetings in polarized communities undergoing conflict, joining in prayers or songs in order to achieve reconciliation;

(f) The women reached groups that men might have found difficult to reach and participated in community projects such as voter education;

(g) The women helped to dismiss traditional views and images of women;

(h) The women were available for deployment, not restrained because of danger, and were willing to accept the challenges of working in the field. They worked effectively with both the military and the police. They considered their field experience stimulating, since they were often given greater job responsibilities than at headquarters;

(i) Even in countries that were portrayed as traditional and "culturally sensitive" to the presence of women, the women proved to be effective.

39. In addition to the normal obstacles faced by women in obtaining decision-making positions, which have been detailed in previous reports, specific obstacles were encountered by women with regard to peace and security operations. The first is related to recruitment, placement and the overall situation of women in the United Nations system. The second is related to participation in the mission. The following obstacles were identified:

(a) The participation of women, like that of men, to these missions did not lead to any formal recognition or promotion upon return to Headquarters. In some cases, participation in the missions turned out to be counter-productive in terms of their career development and promotion. Some participants were not able to return to their original posts;

(b) The criteria of recruitment for missions and procedures for applying are neither transparent nor sufficiently publicized. The positive experience of Namibia was not used as a model in terms of recruiting more women in the United Nations system for mission assignment;

(c) Although a lack of exit interviews to record the experience of mission participants relates to both men and women, it affects women particularly because of their position as "newcomers" and a "minority" on the missions and the fact that women's particular contribution is not documented;

(d) The incorrect perception that women required greater security, were weak and vulnerable or unable to tolerate hardship may have limited the scope of their assignments and often their involvement in some missions.

40. Factors conducive to the participation of women in peace and security operations included the commitment of the leadership of the mission; respect for the United Nations principles, including gender balance and equal opportunities of career development and employment throughout the process of planning the mission, its conduct and assessment; transparency in recruitment, placement and evaluation of staff involved in the mission; interdependency between the conduct during the mission and career development prospects; active attempts to recruit qualified women for mission service within the United Nations system and to issue policy directives encouraging Governments to submit female candidates; and inclusion of a gender component to the training of leadership and national contingents.

41. It should be noted that an increase in women in senior decision-making levels brings as a consequence a greater possibility for career advancement for women. In the four United Nations agencies headed by women executives, there

has been a general increase in the proportion of women professionals, overall and, for most, at both the middle and senior management levels.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR INCREASING WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN PEACE AND SECURITY AREAS

42. In fulfilment of the target for improving the situation of women in the United Nations, efforts should be made to increase the proportion of women in peace and security areas, thus:

(a) All lists of candidates for any post be comprised of both men and women;

(b) Programme managers should request rosters of qualified women as part of every personnel search, which could be extended to member States, other intergovernmental organizations, women's groups of all kinds and professional associations.

43. In order to make effective use of women's perspectives in all United Nations peace-related activities

(a) Efforts should be made to increase the proportion of women in all peace-keeping, peacemaking, peace-building, preventive diplomacy, and preventive activities including fact-finding and observer missions and in all stages of peace negotiations, aiming at a target of at least 40 per cent;

(b) All-female fact-finding and assistance teams should be put together when the situation can best be handled by women, such as instances in which there are cultural constraints or there is a need to deal with problems related to violence against women, especially rape;

(c) In conformity with already agreed targets, States should increase the percentage of women participating in all United Nations forums and activities concerned with peace and security.

44. With a view to finding and employing alternatives to force and military action, a number of initiatives could be taken:

(a) Weapons development, production, deployment and sales should be registered with a view to their elimination and as a first step, the United Nations Register of Arms Transfers could be expanded to include production, be made obligatory and include all types of weapons;

(b) National and local Governments could impose regulations on hand guns and personal weapons;

(c) Parents, teachers, child advocacy groups and similar organizations could undertake a public education campaign to call attention to the connection between violent play, toy weapons and the culture of violence;

(d) Given that United Nations Volunteers and volunteers from non-governmental organizations world wide have made significant contributions to the establishment of peace, especially at the community level and in situations in which men could not have success - e.g., counselling rape victims, women's increased participation in recognized volunteer roles should be encouraged;

(e) Gender-sensitive traditional practices of conflict resolution and reconciliation such as those cited in the Kampala Action Plan on Women and Peace could be added to the repertoire of peacemaking procedures available to the United Nations;

(f) Recognition and support should be given to indigenous women's initiatives and creative local actions for peace, which are undertaken at great risk and in areas of extremely violent conflict.

45. In order to improve the capacity of the United Nations to promote peace and security in a gender-sensitive way, including elimination of sexual discrimination, harassment and abuse, a number of measures merit consideration and action:

(a) Rape in the conduct of war should be defined as a serious war crime comparable to terrorism or torture and thus added to Article 75 of the Fourth Geneva Protocol;

(b) Gender-sensitivity training should be compulsory for all personnel (male and female) in peace and security-related activities, as a primary responsibility of troop-contributing countries but be re-enforced and augmented by the United Nations for all peace-keeping operations;

(c) Compliance with policies relating to non-discrimination, as set out in the Charter, staff rules and regulations and in policies of the Secretary-General, should be considered in all job performance reviews and should have appropriate weight in the determination of contractual status and promotion throughout the United Nations system;

(d) Research could be conducted by the United Nations, in cooperation with non-governmental organizations and peace research institutes, on the extent, nature and effectiveness of women's participation in international, national and local peace processes and movements; traditional mechanisms for the containment of violence and resolution of conflict, and grass-roots concepts of peace and security.

Notes

1/ General Assembly resolution 34/180, annex, para. 7.

2/ Ibid., para. 8.